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ABSTRACT

The basis for socially mainstreaming handicapped children as well as changing attitudes toward the handicapped are discussed; and a list of teaching activities and resources for introducing students to the mentally retarded, the visually impaired, the physically handicapped, the hearing impaired, and the learning disabled is presented. A summary is presented of some research evidence favoring special classes for the handicapped. Attention is also briefly directed to the legal basis for inclusion of handicapped students, including the following two issues: the right to education for the handicapped, and the type of placement. It is noted that since implementation of federal laws protecting the right of every child to a free, public education, expert opinion has continued to be a major force in the decision of inclusion of the handicapped. Teachers' attitudes concerning the mainstreamed handicapped child and cooperative learning procedures designed to promote peer acceptance of the handicapped child are discussed. The resource section provides lists for each handicap on simulation activities, teaching activities, trade books with a story line about the handicap, teacher materials, pamphlets, audiovisuals, and agencies that can provide additional information. The Scale of Children's Attitudes Toward Exceptionalities, which has been used for assessing children's attitudes toward the handicapped, is appended. (SEW)

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SOCIALLY MAINSTREAMING HANDICAPPED STUDENTS

by

Maurice Miller

and

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SOCIALLY MAINSTREAMING HANDICAPPED STUDENTS

Here they come, with souls transparent--
No guile, no secrets tightly wrapped.
With every blotch and flaw transparent;
Those kids they call the handicapped.

Will they survive the classroom's rigors?
Can I contrive: Will they adapt?
Will other students' taunts and sniggers
Daunt these kids--the handicapped?

Here they come, about to enter
My classroom's snares. Do I feel trapped?
Am I supporter or dissenter
To the mainstreamed handicapped?

Each teacher of mainstreamed handicapped students asks the same sorts of questions. Why me? Will I survive? Will the child succeed? How can this student hope to succeed when s/he is so different from all the other students in my classroom? How can this student be truly "integrated" into activities with the other students?

Issues associated with mainstreaming are complex--so complex that each has been explored and each has been debated in volumes of books, papers, and speeches. Obviously, this one publication cannot hope to deal with all the issues. The particular focus here is on attitudes and preparing the social environment for mainstreaming.

With all the pages and pages that have been written about mainstreaming, few have looked at the other children, the non-handicapped children, and the social milieu. It is obvious, though, that the mainstreamed handicapped child is expected to enter a regular classroom which, in large or small ways, can pose a number of obstacles to successful integration.

Certainly, some of these obstacles relate specifically to the learning, behavioral, or physical and sensory handicaps themselves. Other publications address ways to teach these handicapped students. This publication, on the other hand, focuses on the attitudes of others and ways to ease the social integration of the handicapped child.

Before describing some techniques for working with attitudes, it is first necessary to lay some groundwork. The format of this publication, then, is first to define terms, then to explore some of the bases for mainstreaming. Next, we will present what is known about attitudes toward and acceptance of the handicapped. The final section will describe materials and techniques for teaching others about handicaps and moving toward social integration.

Definitions

With a sort of apology, it must first be decided what to call that which is *not* a special education instructional setting. In most publications, this is called the *regular* classroom. The apology relates to semantics. Somehow, *regular* does not connote the same idea of appropriate, beneficial, and "special" as *special* education does. Nevertheless, for lack of a better term, we will define *regular* as referring to those instructional settings which are not otherwise technically labeled as *special* education.

The second term to be defined is *handicapped*. While a multiplicity of images and definitions are elicited when this term is used, we will use the technical definition. In both Public Law 94-142 of the *Education of All Handicapped Children Act* and Indiana's *Rule S-1*, this definition includes a list of children who have been evaluated and described as needing special education in the following categories:

1. Communications Handicaps, including disorders in articulation, fluency, voice, language, and those related to auditory disorders
2. Seriously Emotionally Handicapped
3. Hearing Impaired, including hard of hearing and deaf
4. Mentally Handicapped, including the mildly, moderately, severely, and profoundly mentally handicapped (retarded)
5. Physically Handicapped, including orthopedic problems and health impairments
6. Learning Disabled
7. Visually Handicapped, including partially seeing and blind
8. Multiply Handicapped

The third term to be defined is *mainstreaming*. This term is *not* a technical, legal term but is commonly used to refer to some components of the "least restrictive environment" or "least restrictive placement." Least restrictive environment (LRE) is defined in Indiana's *Rule S-1* as: "The educational placement of a handicapped child which is appropriate to meet his/her identified needs and approximates, *as closely as possible*, the educational placement of the non-handicapped child of comparable age and/or functional ability" (p. 4, emphasis added). LRE is usually assumed to include a number of placement alternatives from the regular classroom with support, to special classes, to special schools and institutions (see Figure 1).

The law does not mention "mainstreaming" nor is this inferred as the best placement alternative for all handicapped children. Instead, a decision about placement is to be made at a case conference while developing the child's Individualized Education Program (IEP). The case conference committee is adjured to consider the needs of each individual child--always with an eye to the extent to which the child can participate in regular classroom activities. Only during the times when the child is involved in the mainstream of regular education activities is s/he, in common parlance, "mainstreamed." Some handicapped children may be in

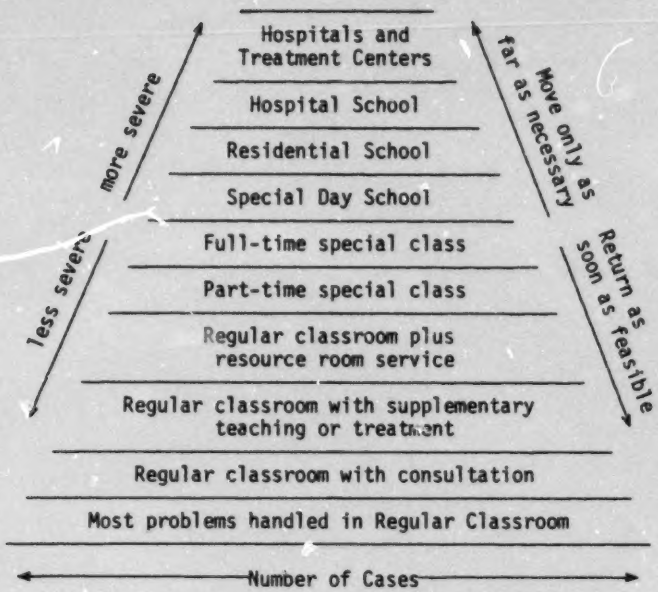

Figure 1. The hierarchy of special education programs. (From "A Framework for Considering Some Issues in Special Education" by M.C. Reynolds, *Exceptional Children*, 1962, *28*, 367-370.)

this mainstream most of the school day, others for only part of the day, and yet others for only selected activities or not at all. The extent of *mainstreaming* is decided by the case conference committee (which includes regular education personnel) based on the student's needs and abilities.

To be sure, not all handicapped children will be mainstreamed. In most schools, the more likely candidates for mainstreaming to any major extent will be those referred to as "mildly" handicapped--some of the students with communication handicaps, learning disabilities, milder forms of emotional/behavior problems, mildly mentally handicapped, and students whose physical or sensory handicaps do not impose severe limitations. In some schools, however, there is an emphasis on some degree of mainstreaming for all handicapped children--including those with moderate and severe levels of handicapping conditions.

Whence Mainstreaming?

In the old days (some time prior to 1977) mainstreaming was not an issue. Educational services for handicapped children were characterized by a "two box theory" (Reynolds, 1973) and "either-or-itis" (McGlannon, 1975); that is, either the child was so handicapped that he needed to have a separate, special education program or he wasn't so handicapped

and received no special education. There are numerous agruments against such a confining system.

I remember growing up in a small town and attending a school where children with a number of learning, behavioral, and physical handicaps were in the same crowded classrooms. No, they received no special education. Yes, I'm sure they were a constant frustration to my teachers. And yes (!), the rest of us were aware of those students and tormented them mercilessly and shamelessly. The very few children in our town who had more severe handicaps were transported away to special day or residential schools. I never saw them nor was I aware of their existence until they were old enough to leave school and be dumped back into our community. Surely, today, no one would argue for returning to that.

Bused away again . . .
Forgettables forgotten.
Were they part of us?

Arguments for educational programs for the handicapped, as they are today, are based on research, litigation, law, and expert opinion.

Research

"Efficacy studies" have been conducted since the 1930s. These studies have compared special classes and special placements of the handicapped to classroom integration. The earliest studies were *in situ* studies. Handicapped children in existing special classrooms were compared to children who were not receiving special education. Primarily, these studies used mildly mentally handicapped (educable mentally retarded) subjects.

Goldstein, Moss, and Jordan (1965) have reviewed several of these studies. Bennett, in 1932, showed that mentally retarded students who were *not* in special classes had superior academic achievement compared to those students who were in special classes. Several later studies ended up with the same finding--superior achievement in regular classes or, at best, no difference in achievement between children placed in special classes and those not so placed. In their own research Goldstein, Moss, and Jordan (1965) studied mildly retarded children randomly assigned to special classes or integrated settings. They found that the less handicapped children (IQs between 75 and 85) did achieve better in the regular classroom, but the more handicapped children showed more achievement in the special setting.

Thus, efficacy studies consistently have failed to show the advantages of set-apart special classrooms, at least in terms of academic achievement for the mildly retarded. The earlier studies, however, have been criticized on a number of grounds: special class teachers who were not especially trained, perhaps fewer special materials, and little consistency as to who was or was not placed in a special class.

More recent research, though, (e.g., Haring & Krug, 1975) has used more sound research designs. However, the results of these more recent studies tend to echo past findings. The "special classes for all special children" argument simply is not tenable--at least in regard to academic achievement for all handicapped children. In order to regard all learning needs of the handicapped, one must also look at social skills and

socialization of the handicapped. Data that have been obtained have been considerably less consistent and less persuasive.

Goldstein, Moss, and Jordan (1965) also have reviewed several studies in these areas. Johnson, in 1950, found retarded children in regular classes to be socially rejected even in a "progressive" school. Cassidy and Stanton found a better personality status for handicapped students in special classes than for those in integrated classes. Jordan and deCharms reported that special class children had far less fear of failure than children who were integrated.

Schurr, Towne, and Joiner (1972) found that scores on a test of self-concept of ability increased more for students in special classes. On the other hand, Budoff and Gottlieb (1976) found that higher-ability mentally retarded children had higher self-concept scores in integrated settings, but lower-achieving students' self-concepts were better in special classes.

More recently studies related to other handicapping conditions were reviewed (Hagan, 1980). Results of studies analyzing sociometric status and acceptance of mildly mentally handicapped, learning disabled, physically handicapped, and sensorially handicapped were similar, with results indicating social rejection for the handicapped regardless of setting. Age variables, however, tend to confound this. Younger children tend to be less discriminating and less rejecting than older children (Pearson, 1978). Also, there may be a hierarchy of preferences for acceptance by other children so that children with milder learning problems are less rejected than those with physical, sensory, and intellectual handicaps (Miller & Loukellis, 1982).

In summary, there has been some research evidence favoring special classes when social acceptance is the issue, although there are too many variables here to really accept this as a conclusion. Efficacy studies of academic achievement, however, do give ballast to arguments against set-apart classes--at least for the less severely handicapped.

Litigation

Court cases have used both research and expert opinion as bases for inclusion of handicapped students. There are really two issues here. One is the right to education for the handicapped, and the other is type of placement.

The 1954 *Brown v. Board of Education* case, although involving racial segregation, has often been viewed as the precedent for a right to equal, integrated education for all students, including the handicapped. A landmark case particular to the handicapped was *Pennsylvania Association for Retarded Children (PARC) v. Commonwealth of Pennsylvania* in 1971. The first issue in that case was whether students could be excluded from school on the basis of their handicaps. The decision in that case was that *every* child, regardless of the nature of the handicap, could benefit from and had the right to free, public education.

The next year *Mills v. Board of Education of the District of Columbia* affirmed that right with an additional ruling that lack of funds was not a sufficient justification for not implementing education for the handicapped. The *PARC* and *Mills* cases set legal precedent for numerous cases

which followed, almost all with the same result: Handicapped children have the right to equal access to public education.

Litigation has also been the basis for the kind of education program into which the handicapped child should be placed. A decision in the *PARC* case was: "That placement in regular class is preferable to placement in a special class, and special class placement is preferable to placement in any other program whether homebound, itinerant, or institutional." The term *least restrictive setting* was first used, evidently, in 1971 in *Wyatte v. Stickney* which involved residential schools for the handicapped. That case and the *PARC* ruling were the bases for subsequent cases which required placement in the least restrictive environment.

Law

Influenced by research, litigation, and the voices of advocates for exceptional children, the federal government passed two laws: P.L. 94-142 of the *Education of All Handicapped Children Act* and Section 504 of the *Rehabilitation Act* of 1973. With implementation in 1977, rules and regulations for both acts assured a free, appropriate public education (FAPE) in the least restrictive environment (LRE) for all the nation's handicapped children. Subsequently, each state developed its own rule, including Indiana's *Rule S-1*, mandating procedures for implementing these laws. Although numerous hearings and court cases continue to work out questions of interpretation, there is now no question that all school-age handicapped children must have a free, appropriate public education in the least restrictive environment.

Expert Opinion

Views of professionals and advocates were major forces prior to passage of the federal laws, and they have continued to be active forces for implementation. Two who have been most influential are Lloyd M. Dunn and Wolf Wolfensberger.

In 1968, Dunn published a now-classic article reviewing research and then-current movements. His argument is that special classes for special children simply have not been an effective solution. He argues for looking at both the academic *and* the social needs of the child and providing the educational programs which meet those needs. Wolfensberger (1972) has been an advocate not only for integration in the schools but for "normalization" in the total environment. This includes an education approximating the "normal" as much as possible. But he also advocates that the total community must include the handicapped in work, recreation, worship, and living settings.

The impact of professional opinion is recounted by Gilhool (1976) in discussing the *PARC* proceedings:

> This fact [that all children can benefit from education] was presented to the Court in many and diverse ways--in the testimony of [professionals]. The moment before Jean Hebeler was to take the stand the Attorney General, in the face of that factual evidence, said "We surrender." (p. 18)

Since implementation of the federal laws, expert opinion has continued to be a major force. And, we must admit, there is disagreement among these experts. Heller (1972), for instance, has asked: "What do we hope to gain by placing handicapped youngsters back into the 'mainstream' if that mainstream is itself polluted with questions of efficacy, relevancy, and quality?" Cruickshank (1960) has continued to maintain that, regardless of others' arguments, there are in fact some children who should not be the responsibility of the public schools. And Kidd (1970) has questioned whether the amount of services, individualization, and money spent on the child in the special class can be duplicated in another setting.

Nevertheless, by virtue of research findings, litigation, law, and advocacy voices of professionals, FAPE, LRE, and mainstreaming *will* continue. Handicapped children must have the opportunity to interact with normal others, and those normal others must also have the opportunity to interact with and learn to cooperate with all persons in the society (Wolfensberger, 1972). Edwin Martin, formerly director for the Bureau for the Education of the Handicapped, states:

> On this basis alone, *the human concern for human beings*, we must attempt to have handicapped children in sight, in mind, and in settings where they will receive the fullest measure of our educational resources. If we also believe their actual achievement in educational terms will also prosper--so much the better. (1974, p. 150)

The Mainstream's Attitudes

The fact that mainstreaming *is*, and even the philosophy that mainstreaming *should be*, does not guarantee that the mainstream setting will have maximum educational and social benefits for handicapped and non-handicapped students. It has recently been noted (Gottlieb, 1982) that there have been fewer studies of what really happens in the mainstream and the effects of that on handicapped children.

What we do know is that simply depositing handicapped students in the same physical location as non-handicapped peers does not necessarily work to the social benefit of either group (Gottlieb, 1982). Obtaining both social and academic benefits for the handicapped child requires forethought and planned instruction.

Much of this thought and planning, of course, falls onto the shoulders of the regular classroom teacher, and that teacher's attitude plays a big part in the actual outcomes of mainstreaming. The attitude of the teacher does, in fact, affect the performance of the child (Foster, Ysseldyke, & Reese, 1975). Also, attitudes of other students in the classroom generally reflect the attitude of the teacher (Siegel, 1969).

While attitudes of teachers toward the *concept* of mainstreaming may be relatively positive (Schmelkin, 1981), attitudes toward specific components, and toward specific children, may be quite different. Teacher attitude has been assessed through numerous forms (this seems to be a favorite topic for graduate student research). Attitude opinionnaires, viewing of video-taped students, and interviews have generally found results of negative or equivocal attitudes toward mainstreamed handicapped children (see Gottlieb & Leyser, 1981).

Part of this negative attitude may be due to the teacher's feeling of insecurity or uncertainty in teaching the handicapped child. Historically, advocates for special education have emphasized the unique learning differences of the handicapped as arguments for special education. Advocates argued for special education, especially trained teachers, and specially equipped classrooms because of the handicapped student's special learning needs. These arguments may have been persuasive in obtaining special education, but entirely too convincing when stressing the differences about the handicapped. The net result is that regular classroom personnel simply feel unprepared and ill-equipped to teach the handicapped student (Gottlieb & Leyser, 1981).

This feeling of being unprepared may also affect the teacher's expectancies for the handicapped child. Several studies of labeling and the "self-fulfilling prophecy" have been conducted (e.g., Foster, Ysseldyke, & Reese, 1975). These have shown that when teachers are told that a child is handicapped, they expect considerably less achievement and considerably more aggravation from that student. On the other hand, if the mainstreamed child is not labeled as "handicapped," teachers not only have greater expectations of that child but may not even be able to identify that child as the one who is handicapped (Molloy, 1974). Perhaps the handicapped child is not so different after all!

Some researchers have attempted to explore factors which influence teacher attitude such as years of teaching experience and amount of education. These factors have not been identified as strong contributors to attitude. What has been found to have a positive effect is experience and contact with handicapped children (Larivee, 1981). It has also been found that teachers' attitudes can change through experience, support, and training (Chalfant, Pysh, & Moultrie, 1979).

Further study is needed on teacher attitude and the effects of this in the classroom. Effects of teacher's sex and grade level taught have not been carefully explored. There is some evidence of an acceptability hierarchy--where teachers have better attitudes toward some types of handicaps than others (Miller, Hagan, & Armstrong, 1980).

There may also be a tendency for teachers to overcompensate for prejudicial attitudes and feelings of uncertainty. One study with learning disabled children (Richey, Miller, & Lessman, 1981) found that teachers did try harder to reinforce the handicapped child. However, their comments and positive "strokes" were directed more to things other than academic achievement for the L.D. child. The child, then, was likely to get a false picture of his academic and social status, based on the positive comments from teachers and peers. One must also guard against this kind of overcompensating behavior.

As was noted earlier, the child's peers may discriminate against the handicapped child, but this is not purely a function of setting. The fact that the handicapped child is in the mainstream may not bring increased social rejection, but it may simply make that rejection more noticeable. While several studies have demonstrated the social rejection, few have attempted to parcel out the reasons for this rejection or to discover what the effects of this rejection might be. Sociometric studies have made it clear that the handicapped child *is* noticed, that he is picked for acceptance or rejection rather than being an isolate (Richey Miller, & Lessman, 1981). It may be that other students simply reflect

the teacher's attitudes and behaviors. Or, it may be that there are features related to the handicapped child which affect other students' feelings.

Effects of age, race, sex, and physical features of the handicapped student may be important. It may also be that students in rural areas and students in very urban areas are more accepting than students in suburban regions. Further, there tend to be hierarchical preferences so that the more obvious handicapping conditions such as physical and sensory handicaps fare better than learning and behavior disorders (Hagan, 1980).

In pursuing the nature of students' attitudes, we have found that, in the elementary school, girls are more accepting than boys (Miller & Loukellis, 1982). We have also found some interesting differences by age. Younger students (grade 2) and older students (grade 6) held significantly more positive attitudes than middle-grade students. Other students reacted to the handicapped child more positively after the handicapped child initiated the interaction. Students may be simply unsure of how to regard the handicapped child, but they are willing to be friendly and to include that child in a group activity, after the handicapped child "breaks the ice." On the other hand, although students were willing to be friendly and include the handicapped child in a group activity, they were considerably less willing to have that child in a superordinate, or "boss," position, even in a play activity.

Changing Children's Attitudes

It should be clear, by now, that placing the handicapped student in the least restrictive environment with some emphasis on mainstreaming has been determined to have academic and societal advantages. It will continue and increase. It should also be clear that to hope that students and teachers will react automatically to the mainstreamed student in a "normal" way is wishful thinking--wishful thinking, that is, unless there is some careful planning and activity both prior to and during the time the handicapped child is integrated.

Prior to bringing the handicapped student into the classroom, other students must be prepared. A number of teaching activities using simulations, films, interviews, presentations by the handicapped, reading materials, and class discussion may be used--some of these will be reviewed later. All students should be made aware of differences between people and their responsibilities to all members of society. So, the first step in planning should be to assure that regular classroom students have some cognitive awareness of what handicapping conditions are; facts about handicaps; learning, social, and physical needs of the handicapped; and ways to interact with the handicapped.

Gottlieb (1980), for instance, presented a videotape showing a mildly retarded child to elementary school children and then discussed such questions as:

1. Why do you think the boy is retarded?

2. How do you think he feels?

3. How do the children in his class treat him?

4. Do you think he has many friends?

5. How do you think he would be treated if he were in your class? (p. 109)

In that study, children with the most negative attitudes, previously, did, in fact, alter their attitudes. It should be noticed that the questions brought about discussion of both cognitive and affective factors.

Children are curious and wonder about handicaps. Full and complete information, presented in a way students can understand, must be given to them. We have found, at least with elementary school children, that they want to know not only what a handicap is, but also: (a) why some people are handicapped (if this is known); (b) what the handicapped person can and cannot do; and (c) how they should react to, and interact with, handicapped people.

On the other hand, cognitive awareness alone is not sufficient. In a project with third and fifth grade students (Miller, Armstrong, & Hagan, 1981) handicaps were explained and simulated, and children were given ample opportunity to read about and discuss handicaps. We found the children to be very curious and interested. They knew a number of handicapped people--family members or people in their neighborhoods. These children seemed delighted that someone explained the nature of the handicaps and the special needs of the handicapped. This appeared to be a rewarding experience for both the children and the researchers. However, on a measure of *attitude*, experimental subjects' scores did not increase over control groups. In other words, cognitive awareness is exceedingly important, but more than that is necessary to change attitudes. Similarly, in the Gottlieb (1980) study described, discussion did change the attitudes of the *most* negative children, but not the attitudes of the others.

The principal ways advocated to change attitudes include contact between handicapped people and non-handicapped students. One effective way to begin this (Jones, Sowell, Jones, & Butler, 1981) is by inviting adults and older students who are handicapped into the classroom. Allow students to listen, interact, and ask questions--no matter how "silly" these questions may seem. Encourage students to explore prostheses and special compensating devices the handicapped person may have. Provide a time for informal social interaction. Alternatively, a parent of a handicapped child, perhaps along with the child, may talk with the students. Many handicapped people, and parents of handicapped children, welcome the chance to talk with students, dispel myths, and explain the kinds of interactions they would really like to have. The usual reaction to this kind of learning experience is something like: "I suddenly realized that they were people, too!"

Another way to increase attitudes, and actions, is by having students work with handicapped children. Voeltz (1980) describes a project in which elementary students volunteered to be "special friends" of severely mentally handicapped children. She emphasized that there is a need for the teacher to structure informal activities which the children can do together--simply leaving children together does not bring about interaction. However, introducing students to groups of handicapped children, having them be together in such activities as playing games or singing songs, and gradually allowing the non-handicapped student more of a teaching role really was effective.

Finally, when the handicapped student is in the classroom, integration can be increased through cooperative learning. Johnson and Johnson (1980) point out that in the classroom the teacher structures positive goal interdependence (cooperation), negative goal interdependence (competition), or no interdependence (individualistic learning). While competition and individualistic learning certainly have their place in the classroom, the effect of these, particularly on the handicapped, is likely to be perpetuation of rejection of the handicapped. Positive effects, however, can come with cooperative learning which involves: (a) instructing students to complete a lesson together while (b) ensuring that all students master the assignment. These authors then review several studies showing the positive effects of cooperative learning. They list the procedures for structuring cooperative learning:

1. Specify the instructional goals of the lesson.
2. Assign students to groups to maximize the heterogeneity of students in each group.
3. Select the group size most appropriate to the lesson.
4. Arrange the classroom so that group members are close together and facing each other.
5. Provide the appropriate materials, and distribute activities.
6. Explain the task and the cooperative goal structure to the students.
7. Observe the student-student interaction.
8. Intervene as a consultant to help the group solve its problems in working together effectively and to help group members learn the interpersonal and group skills necessary for cooperating.
9. Evaluate the group products, using a criterion referenced evaluation system. (pp. 96-97)

These steps, and cooperative learning procedures, will not guarantee maximum acceptance of the handicapped student into the classroom; however, the procedures recommended in this section will help move closer to social mainstreaming of the handicapped.

A Total School Responsibility

The implementation of LRE placement and mainstreaming is not simply a do-it-and-it-will-succeed activity. Mainstreaming requires planning and collaboration among all school personnel, with the involvement of the community in order to show any success at all. Numerous authorities have pointed to the building principal as the instructional leader, and this applies to mainstreaming as well. Without the evident positive support of the principal, teachers will not give it their all. The principal may also need to intervene, to suggest, to arbitrate, and to serve as liaison between school and parents and community.

The regular class teacher and special education teacher need to communicate frequently to discuss special needs of the handicapped student. Each teacher needs to know that s/he is not in this alone and that each needs the other's help.

Finally, there is a need for evaluation--not only of the academic success of the mainstreamed child but also evaluation of the mainstreaming process itself. This evaluation might include informal interviews and observations along with more objective evaluation. Numerous sociometric devices, rating scales, and attitude scales (such as our Scale of Children's Attitudes Toward Exceptionalities) exist which can be a part of this evaluation.

A Penultimate Comment

When we first began to explore social acceptance of the handicapped student in the mainstream, there were strong advocacy forces as well as funds available for special education. Laws were being rigidly interpreted. Now, we seem to be entering a different time. Everywhere, one hears rumors about "deregulation," less enforcement of the laws, and fewer funds for special education. We do not know what will come to be, in fact. If one forecasts the worst possible case, though, the effect will be something akin to the situation prior to the laws and the funds. Many handicapped children will receive fewer special education services, and the regular classroom will have an increased role in the education of the handicapped. Handicapped students will be mainstreamed simply because in-depth special education is available.

We cannot deny, though, what we know. In an earlier time, perhaps we could plead ignorance. Now, we know who the handicapped are and we are aware of the social forces affecting them. There will be, then, even more of a need for active strategies on the part of the regular classroom teacher to facilitate the social mainstreaming of the handicapped.

It seems like the farther I go ahead,
the more I get behind.
The more I am with other kids,
the less ease in my mind.
I never asked to be different--
it's just a gift, I guess.
After other kids get the party
I just get the mess.

I once dreamed of a different world
where everyone was like me,
But in that different world I could think,
I could move, I could see.
But now, I don't think I like that dream;
It's not the way I am,
I'm here, I'm me, I'm all I can be, and
Anything else is a sham.

Hey out there! Remember your promise?
(You said this once, you know.)
You said we're all equal, each one is special,
Each one is part of the show.
You said you would teach me, you said you'd accept me.
Was that just a trap?
Did you mean it when you said you'd accept?
Even with my handicap?

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RESOURCES FOR LEARNING ABOUT HANDICAPS

The following pages list teaching activities and resources for introducing students to the mentally retarded, the visually impaired, the physically handicapped, the hearing impaired, and the learning disabled. Included in each section are simulation activities, teaching activities, trade books with a story line about that handicap, teacher materials, and a list of agencies which can provide additional information. Each of these will not have equal applicability in each teacher's classroom. Also, although each can be useful in particular situations, the teacher will need to judge the merit of each activity or material.

This list of resources has been culled from a number of sources, and it would be inappropriate, and impossible, to list each source here. However, the teacher may find the following to be most helpful:

Bookbinder, S.R. *Mainstreaming: What every child needs to know about disabilities.* Providence: The Rhode Island Easter Seal Society, 1978.

Cashdollar, P., & Martin, J. *Kids come in special flavors.* Dayton, OH: The Kids Come in Special Flavors Co., 1978.

Ross, R., & Freelander, I.R. *Handicapped people in society: A curriculum guide.* Burlington: University of Vermont, 1977.

Shaver, J.P., & Curtis, C.K. *Handicapism and equal opportunity: Teaching about the disabled in social studies.* Reston, VA: The Foundation for Exceptional Children, 1981.

Ward, M.J., Arkell, R.N., Dahl, H.G., & Wise, J.H. *Everybody counts! A workshop manual to increase awareness of handicapped people.* Reston, VA: Council for Exceptional Children, 1979.

Simulation Activities

1. Have students write a paragraph using only two syllable words. (Mentally retarded persons are often limited in this way.)

2. Give students 8 to 10 directions to follow for a writing assignment. (For many mentally retarded persons it is confusing to follow a series of directions.)

3. Present students with a reading assignment that is beyond their level of coursework and then quiz them on it. (Demonstrates the frustration of not being able to do or understand difficult tasks.)

4. Present students with complex math problems. (The mentally retarded individual may face a similar challenge when counting change.)

5. Post signs in a foreign language that students will not be able to read and ask them to put their assignments, tests, and other work under the appropriate sign. (Demonstrates problems many mentally retarded persons experience when reading street signs, labels, and other signs.)

6. Have students write while rotating their feet (if right-handed, rotate right feet clockwise, if left-handed, rotate left feet counter-clockwise.) (Demonstrates similar coordination problems that mentally retarded persons often experience.)

7. Have students put heavy socks or mittens on their hands and then try to sort different objects such as different colored buttons or try to put on an article of clothing and have them fasten it. (Demonstrates difficulties with tactile discrimination and muscular coordination.)

8. Have students do several simulations at once. (Illustrates that retarded persons often have multiple handicaps.)

Teacher Activities

1. Visit a school for the mentally retarded.

2. Invite the school psychologist to discuss mental retardation.

Books for Students

Barber, Elsie M. *Trembling Years*. New York: MacMillan, 1949.

Brightman, Alan. *Like Me*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1976.

Cleaver, Vera, and Cleaver, Bill. *Me Too*. Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1973.

Clifton, Lucille. *My Friend Jacob*. New York: Dutton, 1980.

Crane, Caroline. *A Girl Like Tracy*. New York: David McKay Co., 1966.

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Teacher Materials

Books

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Pamphlets

National Association for Retarded Citizens

It's Tough to Live With Your Retarded Brother or Sister: Facts on Mental Retardation

Your Down's Syndrome Child

Box 6109
Arlington, TX 76011 Phone: 1-817-261-4961

President's Committee on Mental Retardation

Islands of Excellence MR72

The Goal Is Freedom MR73

Washington, DC 20201

Public Affairs Pamphlets

New Hope For the Retarded Child #210A

How Retarded Children Can Be Helped #288

The Retarded Child Gets Ready for School #349

381 Park Avenue, South
New York, NY 10016

U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare

Mental Retardation

U.S. Government Printing Office
Washington, DC 20402

Audiovisuals

International Film Bureau

Care of the Young Retarded Child

Compares normal and retarded children at various chronological and developmental levels (up to 5 years) and suggests attitudes and approaches for working with retarded children.

Chicago, IL

National Association for Retarded Citizens

A Dream to Grow On

This film depicts the 1968 Special Olympics. It portrays retarded children and attempts to create a better understanding of their potential growth.

(See Agencies)

Nebraska Psychiatric Institute-Communication Division

World of the Right Size

Cartoon film describes the causes and effects of mental retardation.

602 South 44th Avenue
Omaha, NE 68105

Agencies

The Blissymbolics Communication Foundation
862 Eglington Avenue
East Toronto, Ontario, Canada

Closer Look
National Information Center for the Handicapped
PO Box 1492
Washington, DC 20013 Phone: 1-202-833-4160

The Joseph P. Kennedy Jr. Foundation
1701 K Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20006

National Association of Retarded Citizens
2709 Avenue E East
PO Box 6109
Arlington, TX 76011 Phone: 1-817-261-4961

Ohio Association of Retarded Citizens
8 East Long Street, 9th Floor
Columbus, OH 43215 Phone: 1-614-228-6689

People First
PO Box 12642
Salem, OR 97309

Simulation Activities

1. Have students watch television out of focus. Discuss how this might affect learning.

2. Have students listen to a movie or television with the picture turned off. Are there differences in amount of understanding among different programs?

3. Blindfold students. Have them:

   a. identify common objects by touch
   b. feed themselves
   c. try to walk around the room using verbal descriptions (furniture should be rearranged beforehand)
   d. go on a "trust walk" with a helper-- use the bathroom, use an elevator, eat in the cafeteria
   e. walk using a white cane
   f. count out different coins and paper money by touch

4. To simulate partial vision, soap a clear pair of glasses or put gauze over the eyeholes in a mask. Have students try to study with the glasses or mask. Have them note the importance of print size.

5. Obtain aids and appliances from your local Association for the Blind. Have students:

   a. punch braille with and without blindfolds
   b. blindfolded translate long messages written in braille
   c. try to read a part of a book by touch only
   d. use a brailler (braille typewriter)
   e. use braille watches, clothing tags, and games designed for the blind (chess, checkers, Scrabble), braille ruler, food tags, braille playing cards while blindfolded
   f. use letter writing guides while blindfolded

Teacher Activities

1. Visit a local library. Examine materials available to the blind and visually impaired. How do blind persons select books? What are talking books?

2. Visit facilities developed for the blind such as the State School for the Blind or Braille Trail.

3. Observe a class for blind children.

4. Invite a guest speaker who trains volunteers to work with the blind. Discuss appropriate behavior toward blind people.

5. Discuss how seeing eye dogs help the blind.

Books for Students

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Butler, Beverly. *Gift of Gold.* New York: Dodd, Mead & Co., 1972.

Butler, Beverly. *Light a Single Candle.* New York: Dodd, Mead & Co., 1962.

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Heide, Florence. *Sound of Sunshine, Sound of Rain.* New York: Parent's Magazine Press, 1970.

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Mehta, Ved. *Face to Face.* Fairlawn, NJ: Oxford University Press, 1978.

Meltzer, Milton. *A Light in the Dark.* New York: Thomas Crowell, 1964.

Parker, Spencer. *Blind Sight.* Old Tappan, NJ: Fleming H. Revell Co., 1977.

Putnam, Peter. *The Triumph of the Seeing Eye.* New York: Harper & Row, 1963.

Rusell, Robert. *To Catch an Angel: Adventures in the World I Cannot See.* New York: Vanquard, 1962.

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Zook, Deborah. *Debby.* Scottdale, PA: Herald Press, 1974.

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Books

Bishop, Virginia. *Teaching the Visually Limited Child.* Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas, 1978.

Chapman, Elizabeth. *Visually Handicapped Children & Young People.* Boston: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1978.

Drouillard, Richard. *Move It! A Guide for Helping Visually Handicapped Children Grow.* Washington, DC: American Alliance for Health, Physical Education & Recreation, 1978.

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Raynor, Sherry. *Get A Wiggle On! A Guide for Helping Visually Impaired Children Grow.* Washington, DC: American Alliance for Health, Physical Education & Recreation, 1978.

Scott, Eileen. *Your Visually Handicapped Student: A Guide for Teachers.* Baltimore: University Park Press, 1982.

Stratton, Josephine. *The Blind Child in the Regular Kindergarten.* Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas, 1977.

Pamphlets

American Foundation for the Blind

Aids and Appliances for the Blind
Attitudes Toward Blind Persons
A Blind Child Becomes a Member of Your Class
How Does a Blind Person Get Around?
Ideas for Better Living
Understanding Braille
What To Do When You See a Blind Person

(See Agencies.)

Dickman, Irving R.

Living With Blindness
Public Affairs Pamphlet #473

Public Affairs Pamphlets
381 Park Avenue South
New York, NY 10016

Seeing Eye, Inc.

Bonnie Tells Her Story (Comic)
Brief Story of Dog Guides for the Blind
If Blindness Occurs

Morristown, NJ 07960

Agencies

American Council for the Blind
1211 Connecticut Avenue, N.W.
Washington, DC 20036

American Foundation for the Blind
15 West 16th Street
New York, NY 10010 Phone: 1-212-924-0240
Alphabet cards, films, publications and aids.

Association for Education of the Visually Handicapped
711 14th Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20005

Closer Look
National Information Center for the Handicapped
PO Box 1492
Washington, DC 20013 Phone: 1-202-833-4160

Howe Press
Perkins School for the Blind
175 North Beacon Street
Watertown, MA 02172 Phone: 1-617-924-3434

Library of Congress, Division for the Blind
1291 Taylor Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20542 Phone: 1-202-882-5500

National Association for Visually Handicapped
3201 Balboa Street
San Francisco, CA 94121

National Federation of the Blind
Suite 212, Dupont Circle Building
1346 Connecticut Avenue, N.W.
Washington, DC 20036 Phone: 1-202-785-2974
Braille cards, literature, information.

National Society for the Prevention of Blindness
16 E. 40th Street
New York, NY 10019

Seeing Eye, Inc.
Morristown, NJ 07960
Free comic books about the training of seeing eye dogs.

Services for Special Needs
Call your local Bell Telephone Office and ask for information on "Beep Baseball" for the blind.

Simulation Activities

1. Speech Impairments:

   a. Have students stutter while making a phone call (to directory assistance) or when asking for directions on a busy street. Have them report the experience to the class.

   b. Have students talk with cotton in their mouths or with something which will interfere with tongue movement.

   c. Have students use an artificial larynx (laryngectomy).

   d. Have students during a discussion pause for a count of three between words. (This condition sometimes occurs with cerebral palsy.)

   e. Have students communicate by nonverbal means only (writing on blackboard, signing) during a discussion.

   f. Have students use a communication board. (Often used among people with cerebral palsy.)

2. Motor Impairments:

   a. To experience difficulties in balance, quickly spin students while their eyes are shut. Then have them walk a balance beam or a straight line on the floor.

   b. Have students lie down and then have them get up without using their heads. (People with cerebral palsy often have difficulty with neck muscles.)

   c. Have students use pliers when using a fork or spoon.

   d. Tape students' fingers together on the non-dominant hand (that which is not commonly used) and have them try to eat with that hand using a fork or spoon.

   e. Tie a rope between the students' ankles that is 16 to 20 inches long. Instruct them to walk, keeping the rope taut. (Demonstrates gross motor difficulties.)

3. Aids and Their Limitations:

   a. Have students use crutches, crawlers, and wheelchairs for a day. Those students using wheelchairs should be encouraged to use a public telephone, drink from a fountain, and try to use a non-handicapped restroom.

   b. Ask students to sit on a chair at home that is of wheelchair height and try to turn on the stove, reach for dishes in cupboard, and do other normal household activities.

c. Weigh artificial limbs. Put equivalent weights of sandbags on students' wrists so that they may experience how tiring they can be.

d. Fasten sticks on each side of students' legs so that the knees cannot bend. Do this to both legs and have students use crutches for the entire school day.

4. Immobility of Quadriplegics:

a. Have students take turns feeding each other during lunch.

b. Tightly wrapping students with a blanket, so that arm and leg use is impaired, have them try to turn over.

Teacher Activities

1. Invite guest speakers to the classroom, eg., a specialist from an orthopedic institute, a physical therapist, or a prosthesis salesperson (to demonstrate use of artificial limbs).

2. Study the muscular system. How can physical disabilities result from damage to the different parts?

Books for Students

Annixter, Jane, and Annixter, Paul. *The Runner*. New York: Holiday House, 1956.

Armer, Alberta. *Screwball*. Cleveland: The World Publishing Company, 1963.

Burnett, Frances Hodgson. *The Secret Garden*. Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1962.

Callen, Larry. *Sorrow's Song*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1979.

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Caudill, Rebecca. *Certain Small Shepherd*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1965.

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DeAngeli, Marguerite. *The Door in the Wall*. Garden City, NY: Doubleday & Co., 1949.

Fanshawe, Elizabeth. *Rachel*. Scarsdale, NY: Bradbury Press, 1975.

Fassler, Joan. *Howie Helps Himself*. Chicago: A. Whitman, 1975.

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Killilea, Marie. *Karen.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1952.

Killilea, Marie. *With Love, From Karen.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1963.

Kohn, Bernice. *Talking Leaves: The Story of Sequoyah.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1969.

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Little, Jean. *Mine for Keeps.* Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1966.

Lyttle, Richard. *Challenged by Handicap.* Chicago: Reilly & Lee Co. (Henry Regnery Co.), 1971.

Mack, Nancy. *Tracy.* Chicago: Childrens Press, 1976.

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Stein, Sara. *About Handicaps.* New York: Walker & Co., 1974.

Stuart, Jesse. *Come to My Tomorrowland.* Nashville: Aurora Publishers, 1971.

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Valens, Evans. *A Long Way up.* New York: Harper & Row, 1966.

Wolf, Bernard. *Don't Feel Sorry for Paul.* Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1974.

Teacher Materials

Books

Best, Gary. *Individuals with Physical Disabilities: An Introduction for Educators.* St. Louis: Mosby, 1978.

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Mullins, June. *A Teacher's Guide to Management of Physically Handicapped Children.* Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas, 1979.

Pamphlets

National Easter Seal Society

When You Meet a Handicapped Person

(See Agencies)

United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare

Cerebral Palsy
Hydrocephalus
Spina Bifida

U.S. Government Printing Office
Washington, DC 20422

Audiovisuals

California Association for Neurologically Handicapped Children

Walk in Another Pair of Shoes

Filmstrip or slide-tape. Discusses problems and feelings experienced by children with special needs. Emphasizes how students can help children with special needs.

P.O. Box 604
Los Angeles, CA 90053

Masachusetts Department of Mental Health

How Do You Feel?

Slide-tape and teaching packet. Attempts to make children more sensitive to and aware of children with special needs.

Media Resource Center
200 Trapelo Road
Waltham, MA 02154

Agencies

Blissymbolics Communication Foundation
862 Eglinton Avenue, East
Toronto, Ontario, Canada Phone: 1-416-425-7835

Closer Look
National Information Center for the Handicapped
PO Box 1492
Washington, DC 20013 Phone: 1-202-833-4160

Epilepsy Foundation of America
1828 L Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20036

Muscular Dystrophy Association of America
1790 Broadway
New York, NY 10019

National Association of the Physically Handicapped
6437 Grandville Avenue
Detroit, MI 48228

National Congress of Organizations of the Physically Handicapped
6106 North 30th Street
Arlington, VA 22207

National Easter Seal Society
2023 Ogden Avenue
Chicago, IL 60612

National Multiple Sclerosis Society
205 East 42nd Street
New York, NY 10010

National Paraplegic Foundation
333 North Michigan Avenue
Chicago, IL 60601

Spina Bifida Association of America
Room 319
343 South Dearborn Street
Chicago, IL 60604

United Cerebral Palsy Association
66 East 34th Street
New York, NY 10016

Simulation Activities

1. Order the free record "Getting Through" from Zenith Radio Corp., 6501 Grand Avenue, Chicago, IL 60635. Band 3 has sentences repeated under different hearing conditions. Band 4 has an "Unfair Spelling Test." Words are muffled to simulate varying degrees of hearing loss. Use as a spelling test.

2. Watch a movie with the sound off. Ask questions about the movie. Write answers on the board. Watch movie again with the sound. Discuss differences in ability to comprehend content.

3. Watch programs with captions. Compare how much of the sound content is conveyed by written words.

4. Have students wear earplugs or wads of cotton in their ears while trying to follow a daily lesson. (Demonstrates how much of our learning depends on hearing.)

5. Have students wear hearing aids or ear molds to go shopping. Have them report to the class on people's reactions.

6. Have students write what you say as you talk slowly (the task of writing will make them miss words), occasionally turn so students can't see your face. (Demonstrates the difficulties of lip reading.)

7. Have class learn sign language or the manual alphabet and use to communicate simple messages. Compare oral speech with these methods noting differences in speed and expressiveness.

8. Have students wear a portable auditory training unit to experience how hearing aids can amplify background noises to distracting levels.

Teacher Activities

1. Examine a model of the ear. Discuss how hearing occurs.

2. Have students report on topics dealing with deafness.

3. Examine safety procedures for hearing protection.

4. Visit a school for the deaf in your area.

5. Visit a hearing aid center. Have them demonstrate aids for people with hearing impairments.

6. Invite the speech audiologist or speech pathologist to discuss decibels and explain hearing loss.

Books for Students

Arthur, Catherine. *My Sister's Silent World.* Chicago: Childrens Press, 1979.

Brown, M.M. *The Silent Storm.* Nashville: Abingdon Press, 1964.

Charlip, Remy. *Handtalk.* New York: Parent's Magazine Press, 1974.

Corcoran, Barbara. *A Dance to Still Music.* New York: Atheneum, 1974.

Cowley, Joy. *The Silent One.* New York: Knopf, 1981.

DeGerling, Etta. *Gallaudet--Friend of the Deaf.* New York: David McKay Co., 1964.

Fant, Louis. *Ameslan: An Introduction to American Sign Language.* Silver Springs, MD: National Association of the Deaf, 1974.

Goldfeder, Cheryl Ann. *The Girl Who Wouldn't Talk.* Silver Springs, MD: National Association of the Deaf, 1973.

Henry, Marguerite. *King of the Wind.* Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1948.

Hunter, Edith Fisher. *Child of the Silent Night.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1963.

Keller, Helen. *Story of My Life.* Garden City, NY: Doubleday & Co., 1954.

Litchfield, Ada Bassett. *A Button in Her Ear.* Racine, WI: Western Publishing Co., 1976.

MacIntyre, Elizabeth. *The Purple Mouse.* Nashville: Thomas Nelson, 1975.

Martin, Patricia Miles. *Thomas Alva Edison.* New York: G.P. Putnam's Sons, 1971.

Peterson, Jeanne Whitehouse. *I Have a Sister--My Sister Is Deaf.* New York: Harper & Row, 1977.

Richards, Norman. *Helen Keller.* Chicago: Childrens Press, 1968.

Robinson, Veronica. *David in Silence.* Philadelphia: J.B. Lippincott, 1966.

Smith, Vian. *Martin Rides the Moon.* Garden City, NY: Doubleday & Co., 1965.

Steele, Mary. *Down in the Boondocks.* New York: Greenwillow Books, 1977.

Wojciechowska, Maja. *A Single Light.* New York: Harper & Row, 1968.

Teacher Materials

Books

Berg, Frederick, and Fletcher, Samuel, eds. *The Hard of Hearing Child: Clinical and Educational Management.* New York: Grune & Stratton, 1970.

Birch, Jack. *Hearing Impaired Children in the Mainstream.* Reston, VA: Council for Exceptional Children, 1975.

Giangreco, Joseph, and Giangreco, Marianne. *Education of the Hearing Impaired.* Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas, 1976.

Hardy, Richard, and Cull, John, eds. *Educational & Psychological Aspects of Deafness.* Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas, 1979.

Katz, Lee. *The Deaf Child in the Public Schools.* Danville, IL: Interstate Printers and Publishers, 1978.

Moores, Donald. *Educating the Deaf: Psychology, Principles & Practices.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1978.

Northcott, Winifred. *The Hearing Impaired Child in a Regular Classroom.* Washington, DC: Alexander Graham Bell Associates for the Deaf, 1973.

Ross, Mark, and Giolas, Thomas. *Auditory Management of Hearing Impaired Children--Principles & Prerequisites for Intervention.* Baltimore: University Park Press, 1978.

Tinsmith, Ernest. *The Problem Deaf Child.* Mount Kisco, NY: Futura Publishing Co., 1974.

Pamphlets

Understanding Deafness Quota International, Inc.

This Child Has Been Framed

1145 10th Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20036

Audiovisuals

Swann Lake

Filmed at Swann Lake, Minnesota, at a camp for the deaf. Conversations with deaf teenagers.

Western Maryland College
Westminister, MD

Agencies

Alexander Graham Bell Association for the Deaf
1537 35th Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20007

American Speech and Hearing Association
9030 Old Georgetown Road
Washington, DC 20014

The Better Hearing Institute
1430 K Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20005

Bureau of Vocational Rehabilitation (Your state)
Check your local telephone directory for the number.

Closer Look
National Information Center for the Handicapped
PO Box 1492
Washington, DC Phone: 1-202-833-4160
Provides a large variety of information about the deaf child at no charge.

Council for Exceptional Children
1920 Association Drive
Reston, VA 20091 Phone: 1-800-336-3728

Council of Organizations Serving the Deaf
PO Box 894
Columbia, MD 21044

Materials Specialist
Gallaudet College
Kendall Green
Washington, DC 20002

National Association of the Deaf
814 Thayer Avenue
Silver Springs, MD 20910 Phone: 1-301-587-1788

Services for Special Needs
Call your local Bell Telephone Office and ask for the Speaker's Bureau. Request information on adaptive equipment for use by persons who are hard of hearing.

Simulation Activities

1. Have students write while rotating their feet (if right-handed rotate right feet clockwise, if left-handed, rotate left feet counter-clockwise). (Demonstrates similar coordination problems that learning disabled students often experience.)

2. Have students read a paragraph that has letters and words in reversed order, for example, ehT god is bigging sih dones ni the dray. (The dog is digging his bones in the yard.)

Books for Students

Barden, Annie. *What Child Is He?* Hicksville, NY: Exposition Press, 1970.

Hunter, Edith. *Sue Ellen.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1969.

Lasker, Joe. *He's My Brother.* Racine, WI: Western Publishing Co., 1976.

Smith, Doris. *Kelly's Creek.* New York: Thomas Y. Crowell, 1975.

Teacher Materials

Blackwell, Robert, and Joynt, Robert, eds. *Learning Disabilities Handbook for Teachers.* Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas, 1976.

Bryan, Tanis, and Bryan, James. *Understanding Learning Disabilities.* Alfred, NY: Alfred Publishers, 1978.

Faas, Larry. *Children with Learning Problems: A Handbook for Teachers.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1980.

Grzynkowicz, Wineva. *Meeting the Needs of Learning Disabled Children in the Regular Class.* Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas, 1975.

Smith, Sally. *No Easy Answers: Teaching the Learning Disabled Child.* Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1979.

Welton, Marion. *Something Is Right with This Child: A Positive Approach to Learning Disabilities.* New York: Vantage, 1978.

Pamphlets

Massachusetts Association for Children with Learning Disabilities

What's Wrong With Joey?

Box 908 1296 Worcester Road
Framingham, MA 01701

New Jersey Association for Children with Learning Disabilities

Special People: Basic Facts to Help Children Accept Their Handicapped Peers (1973)

PO Box 249
Convent Station, NJ 07961

U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare

Learning Disabilities

U.S. Government Printing Office
Washington, DC 20402

Audiovisuals

California Association for Neurologically Handicapped Children

A Walk in Another Pair of Shoes

Filmstrip or slide-tape. Discusses problems and feelings experienced by children with special needs. Emphasizes how students can help children with special needs.

PO Box 604
Los Angeles, CA 90053

Agencies

Association for Children with Learning Disabilities
5225 Grace Street
Pittsburgh, PA 15236

Closer Look
National Information Center for the Handicapped
PO Box 1492
Washington, DC 20013 Phone: 1-202-833-4160
Provides a variety of information about the learning disabled child at no charge.

Council for Exceptional Children
1920 Association Drive
Reston, VA 22091 Phone: 1-800-336-3728

National Association for Children with Learning Disabilities
4156 Library Road
Pittsburgh, PA 15234 Phone: 1-412-341-1515
For information on programs in your area and the address and telephone number of your state office.

Ohio ACLD State Office and Information Center
333 West National Road
Englewood, OH 45322 Phone: 1-513-836-0415

Appendix

The Scale of Children's Attitudes Toward Exceptionalities (SCATE)

The following scale has been used for assessing children's attitudes toward the handicapped in several of the studies described in this paper. Teachers may be interested in seeing how the concepts were actually assessed. Schools may be interested in using this to evaluate the "mainstreamability" of classrooms or to evaluate mainstreaming programs. The senior author does hold a copyright on the SCATE; however, those interested in using this instrument can obtain permission for its use by contacting:

Dr. Maurice Miller
Department of Special Education
Indiana State University
Terre Haute, Indiana 47809

SCATE

Name_____Grade_____

Teacher's Name_____I am a _____boy _____ girl.

On the next few pages you will be asked to circle one of three "X's". Right now, show that you can circle one of these three "X's".

X X X

Did you circle just one "X"? Good.

Now, you will be asked to pretend that two kids are talking. You will be shown a picture of two children and asked to show what one might be saying to the other.

Example: Child 1 and child 2 are eating ice cream.

Child 2 might say: (Circle one X)

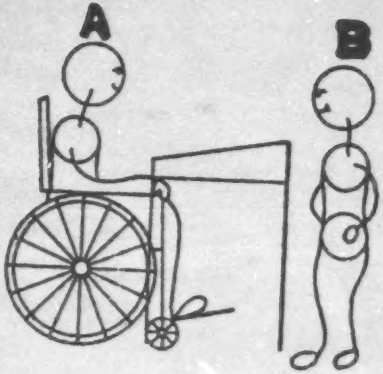
	Would	Might	Would Not	
I	X	X	X	like chocolate ice cream.

Did you put a circle around just one "X"? Let's try another example.

Another student offers to give me some chocolate ice cream.

	Would	Might	Would Not	
I	X	X	X	take the ice cream.

Did you circle just one X? Your teacher will help you if you didn't Now, let's go on to the next page.

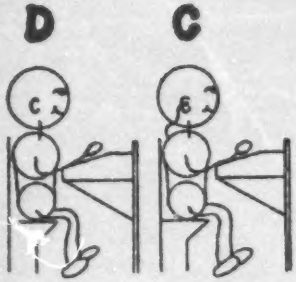


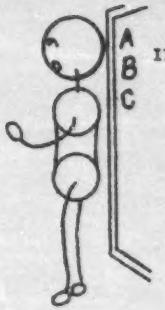
I. Child A has to use a wheelchair to get around in school. Sometimes this child comes to school late. It takes this child more time to get to class than the rest of the children.

For each question below, there are three things that child B might be saying to child A, and three things that child A might say to child B. In each statement, circle the "X" indicating <u>one</u> thing that that child might say or do.

		Would	Might	Would Not	
1.	Child B	X	X	X	ask child A to join a club.
2.	Child B	X	X	X	ask child A to be in charge of the class money.
3.	Child B	X	X	X	ask child A to share lunches today.

		Would	Might	Would Not	
4. Child A asks child B to join a club.	Child B	X	X	X	join the club.
5. Child A is in charge of class money for a trip. Child A tells child B it is his job to collect the money.	Child B	X	X	X	collect the money.
6. Child A asks child B to share lunches.	Child B	X	X	X	share lunches with child A.



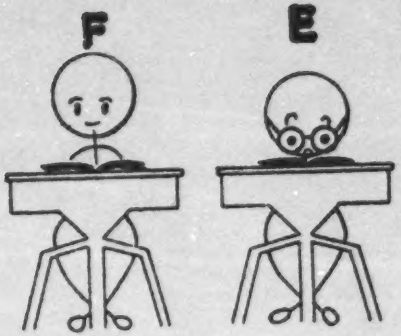


II. Child C sits right in front of the class to hear the teacher. This child has trouble hearing and has to wear a hearing aid. Sometimes child C does not hear other kids talking.

For each question below, there are three things that child D might be saying to child C, and three things that child C might say to child D. In each statement, circle the "X" indicating one thing that that child might say or do.

	Would	Might	Would Not	
1. Child D	X	X	X	ask child C to join the scout troop.
2. Child D	X	X	X	ask child C to eat lunch together at the same table.
3. Child D	X	X	X	ask child C to be the captain of the softball team.

		Would	Might	Would Not	
4. Child C asks child D to join the scouts.	Child D	X	X	X	join the scouts.
5. Child C asks child D to eat lunch together at the same table.	Child D	X	X	X	eat at the same table with child C.
6. Child C is the captain of the ball team. Child C tells child D to handle the ball in a different way.	Child D	X	X	X	change the way the ball is handled.



III. Child E wears glasses that are very thick. Child E needs help getting around school because this child can't see very well. Child E sometimes uses a special machine in the back of the room that helps this child see better to read.

For each question below, there are three things that child F might be saying to child E, and three things that child E might say to child F. In each statement, circle the "X" indicating <u>one</u> thing that that child might say or do.

		Would	Might	Would Not	
1.	Child F	X	X	X	ask child E to play a game together.
2.	Child F	X	X	X	ask child E to go to the movies with a group of other children.
3.	Child F	X	X	X	ask child E to be the leader of a game.

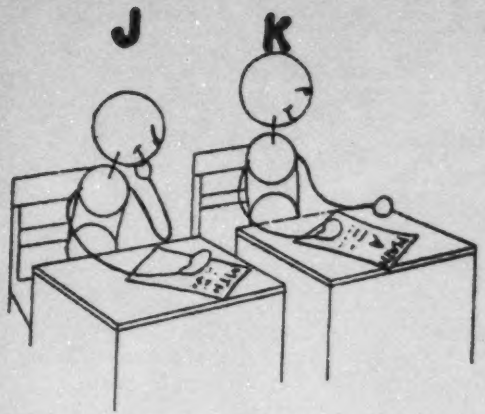
			Would	Might	Would Not	
4.	Child E asks child F to play a game together.	Child F	X	X	X	play a game with child E.
5.	Child E asks child F to go to the movies with a group of other children.	Child F	X	X	X	go to the movies with child E.
6.	Child E is the leader of a game. Child E tells child F not to take a turn until child E says to.	Child F	X	X	X	wait to take a turn in the game.

IV. Child G is only in this class for part of the day. This child usually is at a special room in the school. Child G has a very hard time doing school work and doesn't read as well as other kids. Some children say the special room child G goes to is for kids who can't learn.

For each question below, there are three things that child H might be saying to child G, and three things that child G might say to child H. For each statement, circle the "X" indicating <u>one</u> thing that that child might say or do.

	Would	Might	Would Not	
1. Child H	X	X	X	ask child G to join a sports team.
2. Child H	X	X	X	ask child G to be the captain of the volleyball team.
3. Child H	X	X	X	ask child G to come visit child H at home.

		Would	Might	Would Not	
4. Child G. asks child H to play on the same team.	Child H	X	X	X	play on the same team.
5. Child G is the captain of the volleyball team. Child G tells child H to continue practicing throwing the ball over the net.	Child H	X	X	X	continue practicing throwing the ball.
6. Child G asks child H to come to visit child G at home.	Child H	X	X	X	visit child G at home.

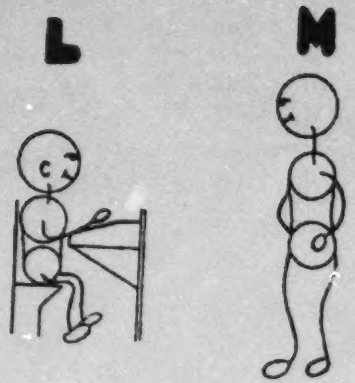


V. Child J answers a lot of questions in class. The child is one of the best students in the class in reading but has lots of trouble with math. Child J is in the lowest group in math. Child J also is very slow in writing.

For each question below, there are three things that child K might be saying to child J, and three things that child J might say to child K. For each statement, circle the "X" indicating <u>one</u> thing that that child might say or do.

	Would	Might	Would Not	
1. Child K	X	X	X	invite child J to a birthday party.
2. Child K	X	X	X	ask child J to be the class safety patrol.
3. Child K	X	X	X	ask child J to go to the park with a group of children.

		Would	Might	Would Not	
4. Child J invites child K to a birthday party.	Child K	X	X	X	go to the birthday party.
5. Child J is the class safety patrol. Child J tells child K to stop behind the white lines before crossing the street.	Child K	X	X	X	stop behind the line before crossing.
6. Child J asks child K to go to the park with a group of children.	Child K	X	X	X	go to the park.



VI. Child L is a good reader and is also good in arithmetic. Child L gets good grades in most classes. Other children like to have child L on their team when they play a game.

For each question below, there are three things that child M might be saying to child L, and three things that child L might say to child M. In each statement, circle the "X" indicating <u>one</u> thing that that child might say or do.

	Would	Might	Would Not	
1. Child M	X	X	X	ask child L to be in a play.
2. Child M	X	X	X	ask child L to ride bikes together.
3. Child M	X	X	X	ask child L to be the captain of the baseball team.

		Would	Might	Would Not	
4. Child L asks child M to be in a play.	Child M	X	X	X	be in the play.
5. Child L asks child M to ride bikes together.	Child M	X	X	X	ride bikes with child L.
6. Child L is the captain of the baseball team. Child L tells child M to practice running the bases.	Caild M	X	X	X	practice running the bases.

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